# A STUDY INTO THE EXTENT OF STAGNATION AND DROP OUT IN THE SCHOOLS OF MANIPUR

(A SURVEY REPORT)

SPONSORED BY:

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING
NEW DELHI = 110016

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#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is my pleasure to record, in these lines, my thanks and indebtedness to those individuals and organisation who helped me in the successful ending of the project - "A Study into the extent of Stagnation and Drop-out in the schools of Manipur".

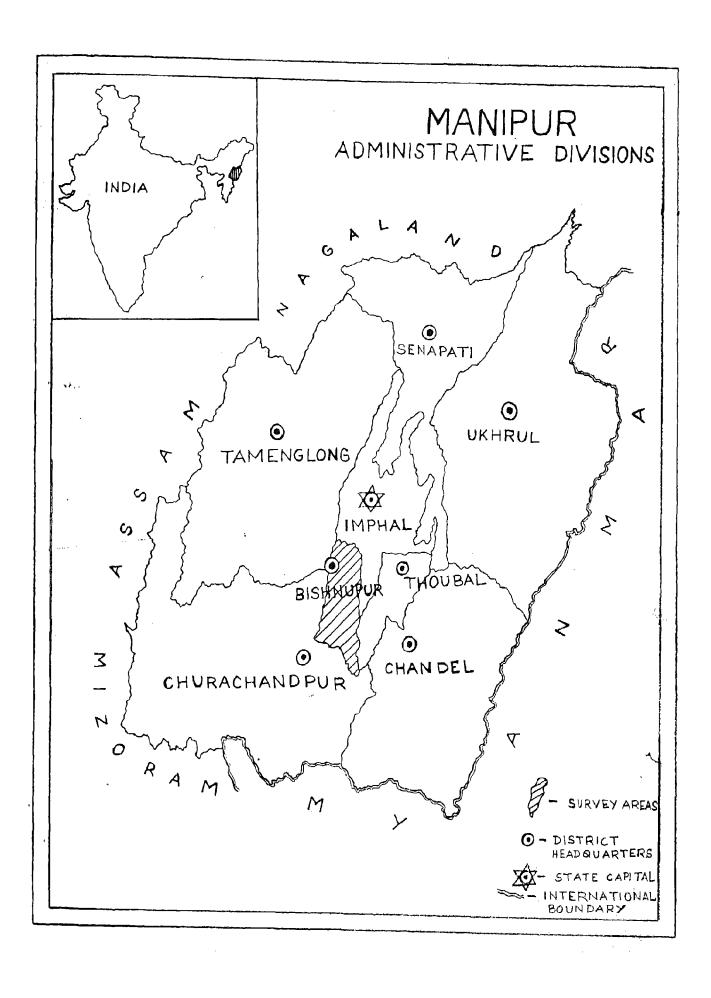
First, I extend my thanks to the National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, for sponsoring the project with financial support and consultancy services. My special thanks go to Prof. R.P. Singh, Head, Department of Policy Research Planning and Programming and Chairman, Educational Research and Innovation Committee (ERIC), and Prof. Narendra Vaidya, Member Secretary - ERIC, for encouragement and revival of the project, when, it was in rough weather due to my illness. Withought the generocity and insights of these two gentlemen, I would not be in a position to complete the work. For this, I shall remain grateful to them until my end.

Secondly, I must thank to those teachers and head masters serving in those selected schools for survey for supplying the relevant data during the data collection work. Without their invaluable helps, it would not be possible to complete the work.

Lastly, members of the investigation team, Sri Kh.Gunen Singh and Sri L. Ladu Singh deserve special tranks for their helps and co-operation in the completion of the project.

Imphal,
The 18th February '92

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## INTRODUCTION

To achieve the goal of universal education for all children upto the age of 14 as enshrined in the directive principle under Article 45 of the Indian Constitution serious efforts are being made by the Government during the years since independence. But, the high incidence of stagnation and drop-out in our schools nullify our efforts in this direction. This problem not only emaciate the educational development in the country but also erode the gains from educational expansion by causing wastage of resources with concomitant negative social, economic and political remifications in the country. We have, but, to reduce this wastage in appreciable extent. How to handle this is a baffling to the planners, educationists, teachers, parents and all envolved in education. In order to bring a solution to the problem, that we may retain children in school till they complete the last grade of elementary education, it is desirable to know the extendi of the problem. As only after knowing the extend of the problem, the concomitant causes may be found out, so that effective measures may be suggested to arrest or reduce the same.

The present study is an attempt in that direction to determine the magnitude of the problem of stagnation and drop-out in the primary stage (Class I to V) in the schools of Manipur.

The report of the study is divided into three chapters. The first chapter is on the general background of the land and the people of the area of study, highlighting geographical, economic and socio-cultural milieu under which the education system worked. In the second chapter a review of educational development in Manipur since its inception is presented. In the third chapter problem, purpose, objectives, sample size, data collection and analysis procedures and results of the study is presented.

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Chapter-I GENERAL BACKGROUND

## 1.1 Manipur : location

The state of Manipur is located in the north eastern part of India. The state lies between the latitudes 23.83°N and 25.68°N and longitudes 93.03°E and 94.78°E. It is bounded on the north by the state of Nagaland on the south by the state of Mizoram and the Chin Hills of Myanmar (Burma), on the east by Myanmar and on the west by the Cachar district of Assam.

## 1.2 Physical features and climate

The state has an area of 22.356 sq.kms. of which nine-tenth is covered by the hills and plains are limited to the ramaining one-tenth. Manipur is encircled by high hills with a fertile valley in the centre. Thus the land is distinctly divided into hills and valley. The bordering hills forms themselves into north south parallel folds with altitudes ranging from 300 meters to 850 meters from the sea level. The highest altitude is Tenipu peak (9,824 ft) situated in the Senapati district. The valley of Manipur is generally fertile. It is the abode of the Meiteis, who form the major section of the population in the state, while, the hill people, who are tribals generally live in the surrounding hills.

Climatically, the state is exposed to South-West and North-east monsoons; and as a result, it gets heavy rains. Average rainfall in the state is 162.5 cm. per annum. The hilly areas



the climate of Manipur is moderate and pleasant. There are a number of long and short rivers in the state. The rivers in the valley have their sources in the hills to the north and the northeast of the valley. Important among them are Imphal, which flows through the state capital Imphal and later on joins rivers Chindwin in Myanmar. Other rivers are the Iril, the Thoubal, the Nambul, the Leimakhong and the Khuga. The most important of hill rivers is the Barak, which originate in the Mao-Maram area in the Manipur north in the district of Senapati it crosses the Bhuban range and passing through Cachar joins the old bed of the Brahmaputra. In the eastern hills the important one is the Lokchao which flows into the Kabo valley of Myanmar.

The state has a number of lakes and the largest among them is Loktak which extends to 207 square kilometres.

## 1.3 Communication

Because of the peculiar topographical features, Manipur is seriously handicapped in this respect. Manipur is a land-locked country. Vast areas in the hilly regions are without any pukka roads and are, therefore, not easily accessible. However, places in the valley are well-connected by pukka roads. The only national highway and all-weather road connecting Manipur with the outside

world through surface road is the Dimapur-Imphal-Moreh road, also known as the Indo-Burma road. Another road connecting Manipur with the outside world is Imphal-Silchar highway known as Cachar road. These roads are become hazardous for traffic during the rainy seasons because of the frequent land slides. There is regular air-service between Calcutta and Imphal, the capital city via Silchar and Delhi to Imphal via Gauhati. Because of rain and fog, these services are get disturbed during the rainy seasons. There is no railways in Manipur. Nearest railway stations are Dimapur in Nagaland and Silchar in Cachar district of Assam.

#### 1.4 Economic : Agriculture

The economy of Manipur is rural and agrarian in nature and is subsistence oriented. The major crop is paddy and is mostly grown in the valley. Other crops like maize, sugarcane, potato, tobacco, mustard and pulses are raised on a limited scale. Once, the state had surplus in terms of food production. But, presently, it is largely depend on import from outside due to the high population growth and influx of people from other parts of the country.

As a plan for irrigation and flood control, the state has 3 multipurpose irrigation and flood control projects and 1 major irrigation project and 3 medium irrigation projects. Ultimate

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irrigation potential of the state is projected as 101,44 thousand hectares of land. Rice is cultivated in 165.76 thousand hectares of land, while maize cultivate 4.68 thousand hectares in 1987-88. In the same year rice production was 312.76 thousand tonnes and maize of 14.06 thousand tonnes. Agriculture being the mainstay of the people, nearly 80 per cent of them depend on it. There are plans to set-up tea gardening in the Jiribam area of Manipur.

#### 1.5 Forests

About one-fourth of the area of Manipur is under forests which are mostly of a mixed type with poor timber value. Bamboo occupies about 1,000 sq.miles and has a rich potential for development, particularly along the Barak in the west and on the Myanmar border. The ageold practice of jhooming cultivation by the tribal people has stripped hills of forests. Besides, unscientific management of forests and erude extraction practice of forest products are equally responsible for the deforestation of forests. With population growth, pressure on forests are is also felt. In 1980-81 total forest area of Manipur was 15,154 sq.km and forest revenue was 2,901,0 thousand.

#### 1.6 Minerals

Mineral resourcyes in Manipur have not yet been exploited.

Copper, mickel, coal, talc, chromite and asbestos are found but

not much is known about their deposits. Limestone is the major mineral rock being used for local lime industry. Salt is another important mineral which is mainly found in the eastern and southern corners of the valley near the foothills in the form of brine wells and springs.

### 1.7 Industry

There are 1439 registered factories and 3022 registered small scale industries in Manipur in the year 1987. Total number of registered factories during the year was 88 and total amount of loan and grants sanctioned were 20.50 lakhs and 5.62 lakhs respectively.

Excepting a mini cement plant in Hundung in Ukhrul district, there is no large scale industry in Manipur. Most of the registered factories are rice mills, oil mills, saw mills and other cottage industries. An important cottage industry in Manipur is the handloom weaving industry. The handloom products of Manipur are famous for its artistic quality. There are no facilities to manufacture yarn locally with the result that Manipur has to depend to feed this vital industry with paw materials almost completely on outside sources. Small industries like carpentry, blacksmithy, embroidary, tailoring, brickmaking, basketmaking and goldsmithy also provide employment opportunities for the people. Fisheries is another source of occupation for livelihood.

of the people inhabiting in and around of lakes. Steps are being taken for the development of pisciculture on a large scale to meet the demands of the 60 percent of the population who are mainly fish eaters and profess Hinduism.

## 1.8 Workers in Manipur

In Manipur during the decade 1971-1981, there has been an increased in the number of workers.

Table 1

		Total population	Main workers	main w	tage of orkrs to population
		1981	1981	1971	1981
	Persons	1,411,375	588,231	34.57	41.68
Manipur	Males	715,718	334 <b>,</b> 178	45.31	46.69
	Females	695,657	254,053	23.62	36.52

Source : Census of India 1981, series 13 Manipur, The Directorate Printing and stationery, Maniur, p.9

The table shows the percentage of workrs to the total population in 1971 as 34.57 p.c., it was increased to 41.68 p.c. in 1981. Increased among the males was 45.31 p.c. to 46.69 p.c. during the decade. Among the females high rise from 23.62 p.c. in 1971 to 36.52 p.c. in 1981 in proportion to female workers to their total population is observed. This rise may be explained by the high increase in female literacy percent and the greater involvement of women in various economic activities prompted by rising prices and high cost of living.

The distribution of main workers by broad industrial categories and sex is given below -

Table 2

Number of persons in different fields of work in Manipur census

1981

Categories of workers	Cultivato	ors	Agricu	ltural	indu manu proc serv	ehold stry, facturing essing, vicing & siring	Other worke		<u>ī.</u>
Sex Total Percentage Total p.c.	2,11,862	57.10	Male 10,961 6.70	Female 17.652 9.42 87	3.25	Female 48,822 20.94 0.89	Male 101,746 29.21	Female 22,864 12.54	576339

Source: Statistical Abstract of Manipur 1989, Directorate of Economic and Statistics, Government of Manipur, Imphal, 1990, p. 13

Per capita income of the people in current price of 1980-81 is Rs.1381.75 and in the same year at the 1970-71 constant price is Rs. 505.52 only. Hence above 60 p.c. of the population is below the poverty line.

#### 1.9 Population

The population of Manipur according to 1981 census is reported to be 14,20,953 of which 7,21,006 persons are male and 6,99,947 persons are female. Table 3 gives the district wise break-up of the population in 1981.

Table 3
Districts, their areas and population

	Name of the Area i Districts sq.kms		Popu	lation	Total
	DISCLICES	sq.kms.	Urban	Rural	
1.	Senapati	3,271.0	9,631	1,45,790	1,55,421
2.	Tamenglong	4,391.0	4,281	58,008	62,229
3.	Churachandp	ur 4,570.0	25,159	1,09,617	1,34,776
4.	Chandel	3,313.0	7,678	48,766	56,444
5.	Imphal	1,201,0	2,02,476	3,53,670	5,56,146
6.	Bishenpur	530.0	46,886	94,264	1,41,150
7.	Thoubal	507.0	76,526	1,58,255	2,31,781
8.	Ukhrul	4,327.0	5,823	77,123	82,946
	 Manipur	22,327.0	3,75,460	10,45,493	14,20,953

The sex ratio, i.e. the number of females per 1000 males, works out at 972. There were 980 females per 1000 males in the state in 1971. In all the districts male outnumber the females. Density of population is 63 per km. Proportion of urban population to total population is 26.44 percent.

Mention has been made earlier about the division of land into two distinct geographical regions, the valley and the hills. The valley are covers the central part of the state consisting of three districts namely, Imphal, Bishenpur and Thoubal and Hill areas consist of the other five districts Ukhrul, Senapati, Tamenglong, Churachandpur and Chandel. The rural urban composition of population in the valley and the Hill areas of Manipur is given in the following inset table.

Table 4

		Population			ntage
پیپر پیپر ڈھٹ آئے سے رسا کسا سے داسانالوک	Total	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Valley	922,681	602,103	320,578	65.26	34.74
Hill areas	488,694	436,057	52,637	89.23	10.77
Manipur	1,44,375	1,038,057	373,215	73.56	26.44

About two-thirds of the population is concentrated in the valley and this consists largely of Manipuri Hindusknown as Meiteis. The hilly regions are populated mostly by tribes, prominent amongst which are Thadou, Tangkhul, Kabui, Mao, Hmar and Paite. More than 90 p.c. of the tribal population have adopted Christianity. The percentage of scheduled tribes population to the total population of Manipur in 1981 was 27.30 p.c. while percentage of scheduled castes was 1.25 p.c. Muslims famp form about 6.62 p.c. of the population and they generally stay in the valley.

#### 1.10 Society and Culture

Manipur has a multi-ethnic society. Several groups of people settled in this land since ancient times. The Meiteis form the majority of the population. They are divided into seven clans. They are devout Hindus and fallower of Bengal school of vaisnavism. Among them there is a clan known as Rajkumars. They are the descendants of the rulers of Manipur and enjoyed certain socio-religious previledges in the community. Thex Brahmins form another section of the Hindu community in Manipur. They are not local and, migrated from different parts of India specially, from Bengal, Bihar, U.P. and Orissa. Generally, they do not intermarry with the Meiteis but these rulers are kmx not very strictly observed. They still enjoy a high position in the society.

The scheduled castes - Loi, Yaithibi, Dhobi, Namasudra, Muchi, Ravidas, Patni forms a very small percentage of population. Except the Loi and the Yaithibi, others are outsiders. They stay mostly in the valley. They have little or no social intercourse with the Meiteis and the Brahmins. The institution of caste exists but the system is not rigid as in other parts of the country. Women in Manipur enjoy greater freedom than in other parts of India. They bear heavy burden in the economy of the people. Marriage is generally arranged by the parents, however, present trend is understanding and concent between the boy and the girl. Child marriage is almost non-existent.

The Christian represent the second largest community. They live mostly in the hills and represent scheduled tribe communities. They are divided into 29 tribes each with its own language, customs and traditions. Broadly, they are divided into two groups the Naga and the Non-Naga (Kuki-chin). Numerically prominent among them are the Thadou, the Tangkhul, the Kabui, the Mao, the Paite, the Hmar and the Kacha Naga.

The Muslims form the third largest group. according to 1981 census, their number is 99,327. They came mostly from Sylhet and Cachar districts of earstwhile Bengal and Assam and settled down in the valley. They have adopted Manipuri as their mother tongue. Jains, Sikhs and other unclassified groups are also found in Manipur but their number is very small.

The population, specially, the valley people have a highly developed culture and civilization. They are the great lover of art and nature. They celebrate so many festivals all the year round and enjoy singing, dancing and games. They celebrate all the important Hindu festivals like Holi, Durga Puja, Dol yatra and Dewali, side by side their old pre-vaishawite festivals like 'Lai Harouba etc.

#### 1.11 Dances

Manipuris have evolved a pattern of living in which it is difficult to separate art from life. Art performances and

religious ceremony are so magnificantly intermingled that it is difficult to distinguish one from the other. Some of the well-known Manipuri dances are the Lai Harouba dance, Maha Ras, Vasanta Ras and Kartal cholom etc. These dances have retained their pristine beauty and rich content owing to the fact that these have been the outcome of a deeply religious wix faith with a strict discipline in their performance. Intimately connected with religion and society of the Meiteis the dance lines through as a vital part of their lives and spiritual existence. Tribal dances and festivals were also associated with religion. Each tribe had its own distinct characteristic festival and dances.

# 1.12 Literature

With a script of her own, Manipuris have a rich store house of literature. Their literature date-back 33 A.D. with the composition of 'Ougri' composed in verse, which is comparable only with the Vedic hymes in quality and purpose. The ancient literatures are of pure indigeneous origin in terms of scripts and language without any currupting influence of Sanskrit and allied languages. However, from the beginning of the eighteenth century due to the influence of Vaishnavism a new course in the Manipuri literature initiated. Since the, it was greatly influenced by the Sanskrit literature and switched over to the Bengali script.

Subjects of the early Manipuri literatures are mainly of historical events, philosophy, origin of clans, medicine, minerals, warfare, administration, duties of kings and laymen, flora and fauna. A number of religious literature were written and translation of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, the Chaitanya Charitamrita, Manu Samhita etc. took place and published. With introduction of modern education in the beginning of the twentieth century, Manipuri literature also entered into the modern age. Literatures in various fields in thsoe of lyric, novel, drama, short story, history, grammar, astrology, religion etc. were writen in a variety of themes. The greatest of the Manipuri romances 'Khamba-Thoibi' has been resuscitated by the poet Hijam Angahal in seven volumes of 38 thousand lines. There is a 12,000 line poen on the life of Shri Krishna (Vasudeva) by shri Kalachand Shastri and translation of the entire Sanskrit Mahabharata into Manipuri in 21 volumes carried out by the author. The late Pandit Raj Atombapu sharma brought out complete Manipuri translation of and commentaries on the Bhagavat Purana, the Bhagavat Geeta, Gita Gobinda, Chandi, and of quite a number of other Sanskrit workes including a portion of take the Rigveda. modern Manipuri literature is fairly rich in content and form. Works on literary criticism, linguistics and indology are also growing rapidly in Manipur.

This development has not taken place in any of the tribal languages so far. It is only under the Christian influence that

written forms of major tribal languages have hear evolved. They have adopted the Roman script and have developed some literature in the form of text books and translation of religious books like the Bible. With the growing modernisation of the speakers of each of these languages, is likely to develop further in time to come.

### 1.13 Languages

Major language of the state is Manipuri, which is the mother tongue of the Meiteis. The language is presently wirtten in Bengali script. Now, plans are afoot by the government and the people for the revival and reintroduction of the ancient script of the Manipuris known as 'Meitei Mayek'. Manipuri language belongs to the Tibeto-Burman sub-family of the great Tibeto-Chinese speech family. This language is highly developed one in this family. It is the state language of Manipur. It is spoken by more than 8,00,000 and is understood by almost all the inhabitants of Manipuri. There are more than one lakhs of speakers of Manipuri in other neighbouring states. It is also the lingua franca of all the people of the state. The only medium of communication between different tribes in Manipuri. It is the medium of instruction and examination upto the middle stage of education.

It is also recognised as a subject of study upto the secondary stage by the Assam, West Bengal and Delhi Boards of Secondary Education. It is also available at the degree level in Gauhati, Calcutta and Dibrugrah Universities. Manipur University offers M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in this language.

In addition to Manipuri there are as many as twenty nine recognised tribal dialects in Manipur. Out of which five of them viz, Tangkhul, Lushai, Paite, Hmar, Thadou Kuki are recognised dialects. Tribal children are to opt either any one of them or Manipuri as their first language.

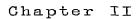
# 1.14 Administration

Upto 1891, Manipur was princely independent and sovereign state. She lost her sovereignty to the British after she got defeat in her last war of independence in 1891. Since then, Manipur was put under British protectorate up to the independence of Indian Union in 1947. When India becomes independence in 1947, on popular demand. Maharaja set-up a Committee to frame a constitution and an elected government was formed with the Maharajah's younger brother M.K. Priyabrata Singh as the Chief Minister. On deference to the will of the people Manipur joined the Indian Union on 15th October 1949 as a Part-C state administered by a

Chief Commissioner. With the abolition of Part-C states in 1956
Manipur became a centrally administered Union territory under a
Chief Commissioner. The Manipur Territorial Council was inaugurated in August, 1957. Later on the Territorial Council was
replaced by a Legislative Assembly and finally on the 21st January
1972, Manipur attained the status of a full-fleged state in the
Union of India.

To accelerate the pace of development and to bring the administration to the doorsteps of the villages, the state was divided into 6 revenue districts in 1969 and again it was divided into 8 in 1983. These districts are sub-divided into 30 sub-divisions. These districts are sub-divided into 30 sub-divisions.

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A REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN MANIPUR

Ancient and medieval Manipur was a land of chivalry and heroism. She had a constant and protracted warfare among the principalities and in the later stage with her neighbouring countries, particularly Burma, now Myanmar. As such her education (in broad cultural sense) was mainly concentrated on military and marshal arts. But, inspite of their constant occupation with military activities, the Manipuri rulers are the patrons of leaning as is evidenced by the presence of abundant ancient literature in archaic language and script. In the royal court schools of astrologers, priest and priestesses, were maintained. Education of the both the common people and princes was imparted in the house of 'Guru' in the non formal pattern. Learning of Sanskrit language was once popular among the elites and was imparted through the indigenous schools called 'Tols'.

The foundation of the modern education system in Manipur was laid by Sir James Johnstone in 1885 by establishing an English Middle school in Imphal when he was posted as Political Agent of the British India Government. Earlier a primary school had been established by Captain Gorden but it soon died out. Again, in 1872 W.F. Nuthal, the Political Agent opened a vernacular school but it met the same fate as the earlier school due to low attendance. The then rulers of Manipur were reluctant to allow the introduction of English education in Manipur on Political and religious grounds and resisted the move of Johnstone for quite some time.

In 1946, with a generous aid from dowager Maharani Dhana-manjari Devi a college was established at Imphal. Degree classes were started there in 1948. Thus Manipur started higher education almost a century after the introduction of this education in other parts of the country.

The progress of education in the first half of the present century is shown in the following table -

Table 5

Progress of Education in Manipur(1901-02 to 1947-48)

Year	Colleges	High School	Middle School	Primary School	Special School
1901-02	ır	11	1	17	ř!
1921-22	11	1	3	97	11
1936-37	11	5	6	215	It
1947-48	1	6	13	278	13

Source: The Indian Year Book of Education, 1961, NCERT, New Delhi 1965, p. 167

The total enrolment in 1947-48 was 60 in college, 3,705 in high schools, 1,560 in middle schools and 25,400 in primary schools. The educational expenditure rose from Rs.16,377 in 1901-02 to Rs.1,75,403 lakhs in 1947.

Consequent upon the merger of the state with the Indian
Union in 1949 and during the subsequent Five Year Plans of the
country, educational development in Manipur had phenomenal growth.

### 2.2 Primary Education

In the field of primary education the number of schools in 1947 was 278. In 1972-73 the number was 2426 and it rose to 2822 by the year 1982-83. Enrolment in primary schools i.e. from class I to V in 1947 was 25,400 which rose to 1,70,493 in 1972-73 resulting in the increase of 6 times. This includes an enrolment of 1,700 girls in 1947 and 68,500 girls in 1970-71 indicating an over all increase of 40 times. enrolment of pupils in 1982-83 was 2,19,570, out of which 1,21,942 boys and 97,628 girls.

In 1947 there are 507 teachers in the primary schools but in 1972-73 and 1982-83 the total number of primary school teachers was 7,496 and 9890 respectively. Out of which in 1972-73 about 54% are trained and in 1982-83 about 62% are trained. The decadel progress of primary education in terms of institutions, pupils and teachers during the period from 1950-51 to 1987-88 is presented in the following table -

Table 6

Year	School		Enr	Enrolment		Teacher	
•	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1950-51	460	25	24,201	4,695	929	34	
1960-61	1,493	167	69,069	37,253	4,110	195	
1970-71	2,160	312	93,055	63,390	6,052	440	
1982-83	2,822	(Mised)	93,724	73,725	8,365	1525	
1987-88	2,574	205	1,31,909	1,12,175	7,016	2023	

Source: Statistical Abstract of Manipur 1989, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Imphal.

# 2.3 Middle school education

The number of schools providing middle stage education (Classes VI-VII) was 13 in 1947 which rose to 439 in 1987-88. The total enrolment in the middle classes in 1947 was 1,360 and this rose to 31,000 in 1970-71 and again rose to 68,464 in 1986-87. The progress of middle school education is shown in the table given below -

Table 7

Year	ន	chool	Enro	olment	Т	eacher
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1950-51	71	,	4862	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	N.A.	
1960-61	293	20	19,016	6,589	1,119	63
1970-71	378		20,000	11,000	1,700	77
1982-83	459		30,127	22,819	2,836	68 <i>5</i>
1987-88	439* -26	26	38,954	29,510	3,105	944

MONKER: \* Due to amalgamation and upgradation of schools

### 2.4 Secondary Education

Expansion of secondary education has been tremendous. The total enrolment in secondary schools in 1947 was 3,705. This figure rose to about 39,834 in 1972-73. This figure was rose to 7,8890 for the classes IX to X in high schools and 5971 for

classes XI and XII in the higher secondary schools in 1982-83.

The number fof high schools in 1947 was 6 but in 1972-73 the number of high/higher secondary schools rose to 130. In 1982-83 the number of high school was 291 and number of higher secondary schools was 10, but the number was rose to 355 for high schools and 30 for higher secondary schools in the year 1987-88.

In 1947, there were 111 teachers in the secondary schools but in 1972-73 the total number of secondary school teacher rose to 1,920 and by 1982-83 it rose to 3615 in high schools and 346 in higher secondary schools. The following table speaks of the progress of secondary school education in Manipur.

Table 8
Showing progress of secondary school education in Manipur

- شدن جسم کرتی خوندی نوست، واست	High/	_	r Secondary	Enr	olment	Τe	achers
Year	Male		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1950-5	 1	11		1,41	8	M	. A .
1960-6	1 52	•	3	18,084	2,475	757	49
1972-7	3	130		39,8	34	1,9	20
1982-8	3	301	,	49432	35429	3148	813
1987-8	8	385		2,3,828	17,396	4635	1878
				*(10,648)	(7,601)		

<sup>\*</sup> Figures in parenthesis are the student of Re-University course and not included in the total

# 2.5 Teacher pupil ratio in school education

Norms are laid down by the government of Manipur for fixing the number of teachers in educational institutions of different levels in the state. In respect of primary school one teacher is appointed to every class of 15 pupils in the hill areas and of 30 pupils in valleys. At the middle school stage one teacher is appointed to every class of 45 pupils. High schools having single section in classes VII to X will get one undergraduate teacher and five graduate teachers. In the case of high schools with classes III to X three undergraduate teachers and seven graduate teachers are provided. For each additional section with 45 pupils additional posts of undergraduates or graduate as the case may be appointed.

The following table shows the year wise teacher pupil ratio in different stages of education in Manipur since 1950-51.

Table 9

Year	Prima ry	Middle	High/hr. Secondary
1950-51	30 : 1	24 : 1	30 :1
1960-61	25 : 1	20 : 1	28 : 1
1970-71	22 : 1	22 : 1	20 : 1
1975-76	20 : 1	20 : 1	22 : 1
1980-81	17:1 .	16 : 1	, 22 : 1
1984-85	19:1	18 <b>:</b> 1 <sub>.</sub>	20 : 1
1986-87	20 : 1	19 : 1	19:1

Source : Directorate of education, Govt. of Manipur.

Chapter III
PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

## 3.1 The problem

Repeatition of pupils in one class for more than one year and consequent dropping out of the school before completing the prescribed course are the major constraints in the process of universalisation of elementary education in our country. These phenomena not only caused wastage of resources put into education but also hampered socio-economic change and political development of the country. This problem was pointed out by the Auxiliary Committee popularly known as the Hartog Committee's Report in 1928 which remarked that 'Throughout the whole educational system there is waste and ineffectiveness'. Since then, several institutions and individuals have made studies in the area, identifying the extent and causes of wastage and stagnation and suggested some remedial measures. These studies, however, were confired to either their own province/state, Gertain regions within a state or even a district within a state. This is quite understandable since the problem is quite complicated and a detailed study involves resources as well as longer duration. Study on the problem of wastage and stagnation is conspicuously absent in Manipur, However, the Fourth All India Educational Survey Report (1980) indicates high rate of stagnation and drop-out in Manipur. In Manipur, enrolment in class I constituted more than 40 per cent of the total enrolment in Class I to V.

The survey indicates high rate of stagnation in Class I.

The Class VI enrolment in 1978 was 32.05% of the class I enrolment in 1973. The percentage of retention for the boys was 35.3%

and for girls 27.07%. This indicate the high drop-out rate in the MMK primary stage and the case of girls is higher than that of the boys. Hence, there is need for an in depth study in order to probe the significant factors causing these phenomena.

Before identification of the causative factors of these phenomena, it was felt necessary to work out the extent of the stagnation and drop-out of the pupils in the schools so that up-to-date information may be in hand. The present study is limited to that objective. In the second phase, the causative factors of stagnation and drop-out will be attempted.

# 3.2 Objectives of the study

The following are the objectives of the study.

- i) To estimate the overall rate of wastage in terms of stagnation and drop-out in different classes.
  - a) among the boys and girls
  - b) among the children belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes.
- ii) To compare the wastage rates in urban and rural areas.

# 3.3 Sample size and collection of data

The sample schools covered in this study is drawn from one , district of Manipur, namely, Bishenpur, in Manipur valley. The

selection of samples of schools is done by using simple random sampling scheme from the list of all schools available in the district. A sample of 50 schools are drawn for this study.

After selecting the sample schools, the schedule developed for the purpose was to adopt the cohort method and hence needed reference to previous records and collect details on items like pupils who had repeated in a class. Those who had been newly admitted and those promoted from the preficus class in the school. This information was to be collected for five years starting from 1980-81 upto 1984-85 and sought details such as boys, girls, total and also of those children belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. This called for a lot of patience on the part of the respondent in supplying complete, consistent and correct data by the head of the institution who might not be in a position to devote the necessary time within the specified duration. In such circumstances the investigator had to make several sessions with the head of the institutions and teachers. In case of some schools, where the basic records are not properly maintained, they had to be abandoned and replaced by other schools.

While selecting schools, attempts are made to represent schools from rural and urban areas. Urban areas are notified small towns and municipalities. Seventeen such schools are represented from the urban areas and rest are from the rural areas.

Out of the 50 sample schools, 9 schools represent girls. The district selected for this study is mainly inhabited by the Meitei population. Hence, the children population representing scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are less in number. However, while computing data their sections are separately analysed and tabulated whenever they are found. The original plan of the study was to select two districts of Manipur, one, representing valley habited by the Meitei, non-sechuled population and another a Mink Hill district inhabited by the scheduled tribes population. As the outcoming data from the Hill district was not acceptable, the proposal was dropped and only one valley district from where proper data was available was analysed and represented in this study.

The main objective of the study was to determine the extent of wastage and stagnation at the stage of primary education from Class I to V which is prevalent feature in Manipur, hence, it was felt desirable to ascertain broadly causes for the same from the fathers/guardians of a cross section of the pupils who withdraw from schools before covering the complete duration, as well as the from the pupils themselves.

For this purpose the study was designed in two phases. The first phase was intended to collect statistical data from primary schools for classes I to V along with the Headmaster's opinion regarding causes of wastage and stagnation. In the second phase

it was intended to interview the pupils of one village who withdraw from the school before completing the œurse for the duration for which the data was collected and their father/guardian to ascertain the causes for the same. The schedules convassed for the purpose was enclosed in the appendix.

From the schedule convassed under phase II it may be observed that except the bio-data of pupil and his/her family, the questionnaire is unstructured and open-ended. This was done mainly to ascertain free and frank response from the respondent to avoid leading and suggestive responses. Further the interview of the pupil and his/her father/guardian was independent of each other so that the responses of one may not influence the other. Apart from the schedule being convassed in case of drop-out pupil and his/her father/guardian in only one village and the urban area, it was further restricted to only those pupils who were available in that village or the municipal limits of the urban area at the time of investigation as it would not have been possible to pursue those who had left the place.

## 3.4 Analysis procedure

For the analysis of data 3 indices have been determined viz., (1) wastage and stagnation by Cohort method (2) rate of repeaters and (3) rate of drop-outs. These indices have been

determined for boys, girls, boys and girls combined, for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes separately, for rural and urban areas and also rural and urban combined.

While determining wastage and stagnation the difference in enrolment between class I and the last class of the primary stage Class V, on the last working day of the academic session is taken into consideration and the ratio of this difference to the total enrolment as the index with 100 as base. Thus wastage and stagnatiton has been estimated at the end of class IV.

The formula used for calculation of rate of drop-out is as follows -

Rate of drop-out =  $\frac{\text{Number of drop out in the grade}}{\text{Total enrolment in the grade}} X 100$ 

Thus for determining the repeater and drop out indices the following procedure has been adopted.

For all classes for each year, information has been sought about the number of xx repeaters and new admission. From class II onwards information about promotees from the previous class in the same school has also been sought. For example, - a total of 120 pupils are in class I during the end of the year 1980-81. During the next academic session i.e. 1981-82, at the end of the

year there are 30 repeaters in class I and 60 promotees continued in class II. Then the repeaters index with 100 as base is  $\frac{30}{120}$  X 100 = 25. Out of the 120 pupils at the end of class I in 1980-81, 30 pupils repeated class I in 1981-82 and 60 promotees were there in class II at the beginning of the academic session 1981-82, then drop-out index with 100 as base in class I is  $\frac{120}{120} = \frac{(60+30)}{120}$  X100 = 25

Thus it is observed that the rate of repeaters and the rate of drop-out in class I during 1980-81 was 25 each. Similarly this calculation was followed in other classes also. These indices are calculated for the year 1980-81 to 1983-84 for each of the classes I - IV. This procedure for calculating the rate of wastage and drop-out was fallowed by K.N. Hariyanniah at.el. (1981) a NCERT study 'stagnation and drop-out at primary stage;

## 3.5 Results

Rate of wastage and stagnation

The rate of wastage and stagnation amongst pupils in rural schools is higher than that amongst those in urban schools. As against 24.80% in urban schools it is 47.32% in rural schools. It is also true amongst boys, girls as well as scheduled tribes in that in rural schools the percentage of wastage and stagnation

is 40.90%, 55.25% and 92.86% respectively while the urban schools those figures are 25.65%, 21.88% and 75.00% respectively for the above mentioned categories viz, boys, girls and scheduled tribes pupils. As regards the scheduled caste pupils only rural area is represented in the sample and the rate of wastage and stagnation is found to be cent per cent. This may be accounted for the smallness of sample for this category of population. As scheduled caste constitute only 1.25% to the total population of Manipur. Hence the result is not significant and can not be generalised. A separate sample may be drawn exclusively for the study of the scheduled caste pupils cases.

comming to ichildren belonging to want scheduled Tribes and scheduled castes, while the rate is higher amongst scheduled, caste (100.00%, 92.86%) in rural schools. In the urban schools scheduled caste pupils are not available in the sample.

The over all figures of wastage and stagnation determined from the sample Iby Cohort method with 1980-81 as base year reveal that for every 100 children enrolled in class I only 69.00% stayed in class V during the year 1984-85 and for boys and girls these figures are 72.40% and 68.82% respectively.

## Rate of Repeaters and Drop-outs

The rate of repeaters is generally higher in higher classes. In 1980-81 base year in class I it was 0.97% while in consequative three higher classes II, III and IV, the repeaters percentage rose to 3.67%, 6.75% and 6.48% respectively. The rate of repeaters is greater in rural schools than that of the urban ones as shown in table 1. Amongst the rural girls and boys the percentage is fluctuating in the lower classes, while in upper class IV, the girls' figure is higher than the boys. In the urban shoools the figure of repeaters is higher among the boys than the girls. As regards Scheduled Tribes pupils the rate of repeatition is stagnant in rural schools in upper classes, while, in the urban schools it is higher in the upper classes.

Comming to the rate of drop-outs the trend is one of fluctuation whether in rural or urban schools.

## APPENDICES

## List of surveyed schools

- 1. Thanga Lawai Primary School
- 2. Langpok Kakyai Girls J.B. School
- 3. Phoiging Girls J.B. School
- 4. Phoijing U.J.B. School
- 5. Utlou J.B. School
- 6. Laisembam Mamang J.B. School
- 7. Khoijuman Girls J.B. School
- 3. Lourembam Maning J.B.School
- 9. Waheng Khuman J.B. School
- 10. Laingambi J.B. School
- 11. Salam Konjin J.B. School
- 12. Karang Primary SChool.
- .13. Maibam Chingang J.B. School
  - 14. Kumbi Setum J.B. School
  - 15. Wangoo Terakhong J.B. School
  - 16. Kongjong U.J.B. School
  - 17. Leimapokpam Girls J.B. School
  - 18. Borayangbi J.B. SChool
  - 19. Moirangkhunou Keirenphabi J.B. School
  - 20. Nachou J.B. School
  - 21 Thamnapokpi J.B. SChool
  - 22. Bishenpur Kha U.J.B. School
  - 23. Bishenpur Girls U.J.B. SChool
  - 24. Kwasiphai Girls Primary school
  - 25. Loyala School, Chothe

- 26. Khoijuman U.J.B. SChool
- 27. Jaipur Khonou U.J.B. School
- 28. Toubul U.J.B. School
- 29. Ningthoukhong U.J.B. School
- 30. Bishenpur Chinjing J.B. School
- 31 Yumnam Khunour Girls Primary school
- 32. Leimaram J.B. SChool
- 33. Ething L.P. School
- 34. Keibul Primary school
- 35. Ningthoukhong Mamang J.B. School
- 36. Bishenpur Kha Primary school
- 37. Oinam U.J.B. School
- 38 Nganukol J.B. School
- 39 Thanga J.B. School Shribon
- 40. Saiton II L.P. SChhol
- 41. Kainou Girls Primary school
- 42. Oksungbung U.J.B. School
- 43. Thinungai U.J.B. school
- 44. Ngakchrou Pokpi Primary school
- 45. Phubala U.J.B. School
- 46. Ngaikhong Boys L.P.school
- 47. Sunusiphai Boys L.P. school
- 48. Naranseina Boys L.P. school
- 49. Moirang Girls L.P. School
- 50. Thambal English school

Table 1

RATE OF REPEATERS AND DROP OUTS

C1 ARea	asses		I	(1980-	-81)			II	(1981-	-82)		II	I (198	2-8
nnea		В	G	Ţ	SC	ST	B	G	T	SC	ST	В	G	
	Repeaters	2.53	0 .	. 6•13	0	0	1.41	10.71	4.10	0	033	7.85	7.03	7.
RURAL	Dropouts	8.08	12.84	4.29	8.75	35.71	5.08	6.70	2.56	100.00	33.33	7.85	11.89	7
URBAN	Repeaters	2.09	2.60	2.61	-	0	3.30	2.17	3.62	-	1.25	5•75	3.37	4.
	Dropouts	2.62	1.56	3.66	1	0	1.10	1.09	1.67	_	1.25	2.30	2.25	1.
TOTAL	Repeaters	0.68	1.34	0.97	0	0	4.29	2.71	3.67	0	0	6-49	7.10	6
	Dropouts	0	0	0	8.75	18•1	3.26	4.97	4.00	100.00	38.89	4.64	10.02	6.

Table 2
RATE OF WASTAGE AND STAGNATION

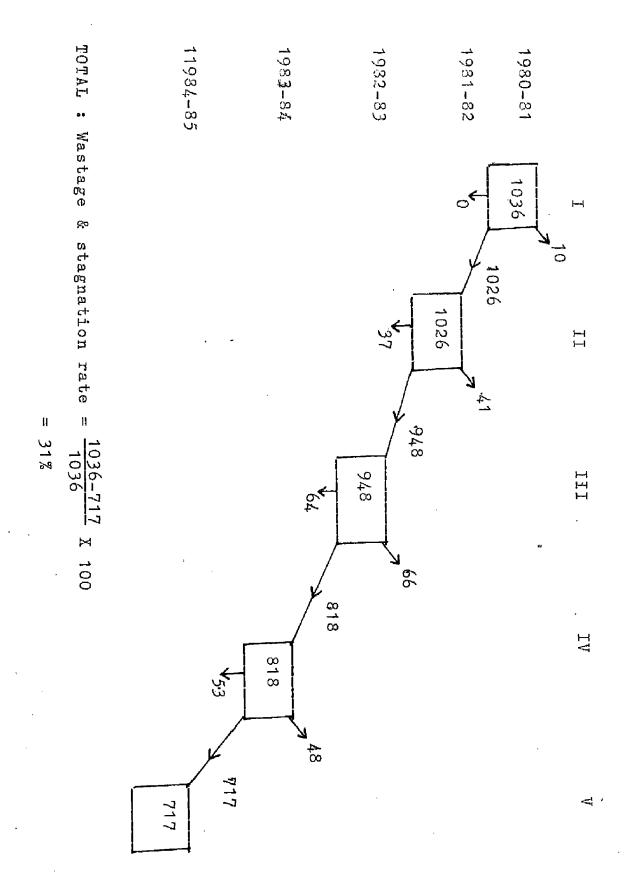
	as base	1980-81	Cohort with			
SH	SC		ជ	В	gory	Cate-
14	16		257		₽₽	
9	7)	653 585	257 224	354	II	
6	-	546	185	396 354 331	AI III	
W	i	467	150	279	I	RURAL
	,	344	115	234	4	I
(92.86)	(100.00)	467 344 (47.32) 383 359 340 320 288 (24,80) 1036 1026 934 818 717 (31.00)	185 150 115 (55.25)	279 234 (40.90) 191 182 174 160 142 (25.65) 587 583 539 479 425 (27.60)	Wastage up	
∞	1	383		191	Н	
00	1	359	192 184 178 168 150 (21	182		
6	ı	340	178	174	H	UR.
W	1	320	168	166	V	URBAN
2		288	150	142	d	1
2 (75.00)	,	(24,80)	.88	(25.65)	wastage   I	
		1036	449	587	V <sub>H</sub>	
22 18	N	1026	443	583		
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7	ı	<u>8</u>	339	479	III IV V	TOTAL
W		717	309	125	_ C ≈	<u> </u>
(86.36	- (100.00)	(31.00)	449 443 409 339 309 (31.18)	(27.60)	Class IV	מלים ווחלים

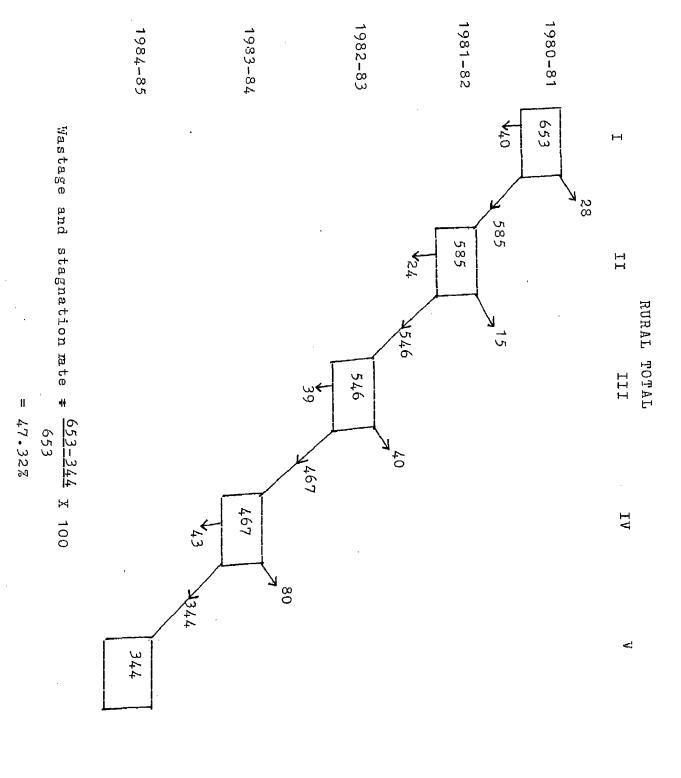
Table 3
TEROIMENT IN CLASSES I-V

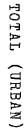
		1		69	25 44	25	œ	t	œ	1060	8111	612	1984-85
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	}		δά   	821.	76	52	W	W	١	1013	443	570	1983-34
21 21	2	<b>)</b>			.						#0,	<i>)4).</i>	1982-83
**	'	,	ı	99	8	24	22	1	N	1008 2	263	7	3
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				129	64	65	38	35	W	989	426	<b>5</b> 63	1980-81
ين ا ب	1	i.	,									1	
				,	<u>2</u>  -  -  -	ין לי	TETOI	Girt.s	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	
Boys Girls Total Boys Girls Total Boys Girls Total	Total	ys Girls	tal Bo	101	CHAD CHAD	Pova	II	CLASS II		<b>⊢</b>	CLASS I	•	
CLASS V	V	CLASS IV		T T T	or age TTT		ì						

Table 4
STAGNATION AND WASTAGE

URBAN 25.65 21.88 24.80 -  RURAL 40.90 55.25 47.32 100	F14 - 0.0
BURAL 40.90 55.25 47.32 100	75.00 
	.00 92.86
TOTAL 27.60 31.18 31.00 100	.00 86.36





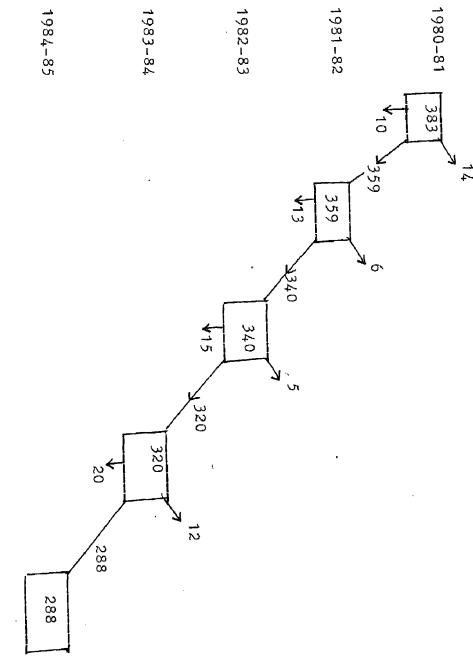


III

H

ΤV

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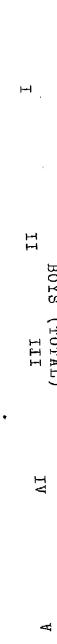


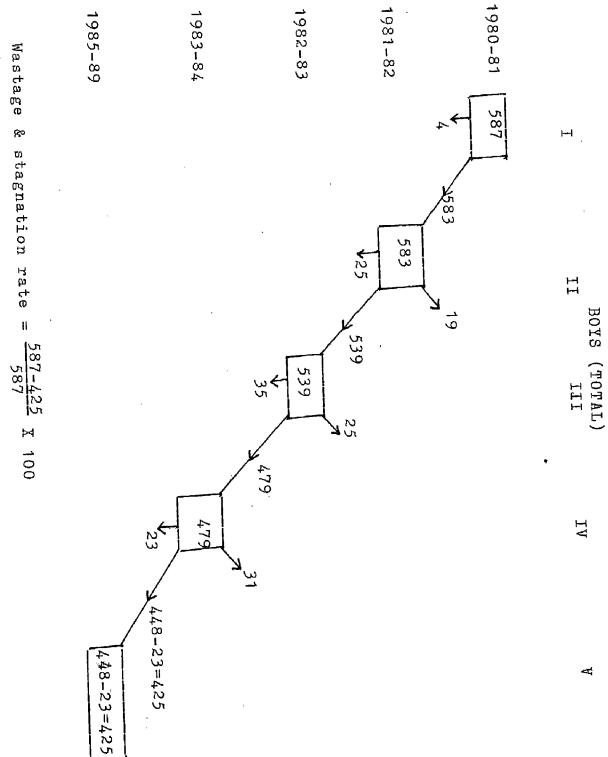
Wastage and stagnation =

383-288 X 100

383 3

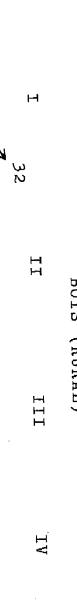
= 24.80%

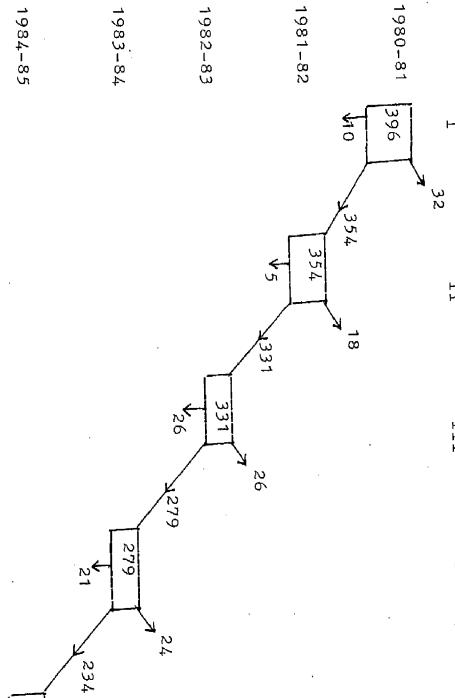




= 27.60%

# BOYS (RURAL)





Wastage and stagnation rate = 
$$\frac{270-624}{396}$$
X100



III

VI

<

1984-85

Wastage and stagnation =  $\frac{191-142}{191}$ X 100

= 25.65%

1980-81

449

1981-82

¥09

409

29

339

0

339

**ფ**€

309

309

1983-84

1982-83

1984-85

Wastage βo stagnation rate 11 Π. 449<u>-309</u> x 100 31.18%

H

<del>|--|</del>

III

AI

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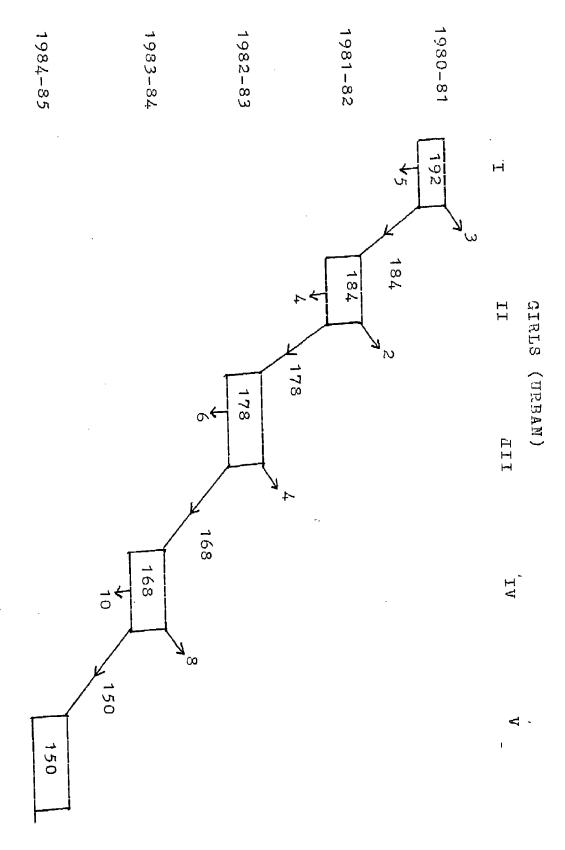


1984-85 1983-84 1982-83 1981-82 1980-81 257 S **!--!** 224 224 ΙŢ 185 185 III 150 150 გ**∢** IV 115 115

Wastage & stagnation rate 11  $\frac{257-115}{257}$  100

II

4



Wastage and stagnation =

192-150-x 100

= 21.88%

ŢV

¥

1980-81 ű 0€ H

1981-82

<u>~</u>

**○**←

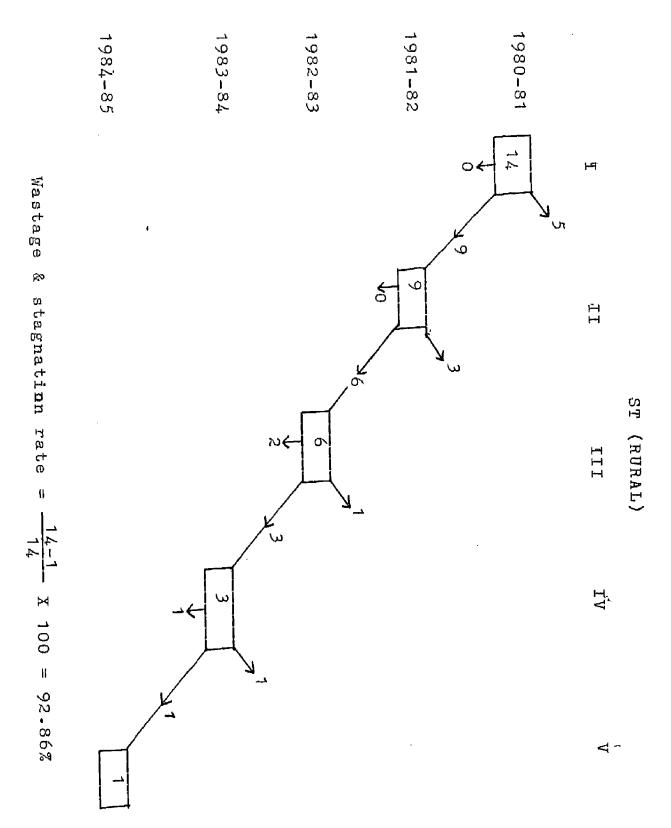
1982-83

1983-84

o**(**-

1984-85

Wastage & stagnation = il  $\frac{19}{22} \times 100 = 86.36\%$ X 100



İII

ΊI

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1980-81

00

1981-82

1982-83

1983-84

o

1984-85

Wastage and stagnatikon  $=\frac{8-2}{8}$ 

ikon : = 
$$\frac{5.2}{8}$$
 X100 = 75%

1980-81

16

H

Н

III

TV

۲۰۰

1984-85

1983-84

1982-83

1981-82

N

0

Wastage and stagnatkon = 100%

#### Phase I

## Study on Stagnation and Drop out

Instructions for filling the Proforma. Please read the instructions carefully before filling the Proforma.

- 1. Use ballpoint pen for filling the proforma.
- 2. Prepare duplicate copies for any further reference.
- 3. The date of reference for all the years is the last working day of the academic session. You may indicate at the top the last working date.
- 4. The row tatal means the total of all pupils belonging to all communities including Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Hence ensure that the figure in this row for each category is never less than the total for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. At best it can be equal for that class.
- the total enrolment of all sections in that class. For example, if there are sections A.B and C in class I in a school, add the enrolment of all these sections under the categories provided and then enter in the proforma.
- 6. (i) Repeaters: Those who have failed/Retained in the same class.

- (ii) Promotees: Those who passed/were promoted to the next higher class.
- (iii) New Admi- Those who joined that School for the ssion first time either directly or admitted through transfer certificate.
- 7. Get, the inventory for the Headmaster enclosed along with his proforma filled from him/her. Do not separate the inventory from the proforma.

# Headmaster's Inventory on Pupils' Drop-out

Please tick (-) inside the bracket against those causes which you feel are mainly responsible for the pupil's dropout.

A <u>Eco</u>	nomic Causes		
1.	Parents cannot meet expenditure on education	(	)
2.	Parents want theirwards to supplemnt the family income	э	
	through seeking employment.	(	)
3.	Parents need the help of the ward in their family and		
	other occupations which would otherwise involve mone-		
	tary expenditure to the family	(	)
4•	Any other (specify)	(	)
B. <u>Ed</u>	ucational Causes		
1.	School environment not encouraging (inadequate physic	al	
	facilities, poor school building etc.)	(	)
2.	Educational backwardness of community	(	)
3.	Lack of enthusiasm amongst staff members	(	)
4•	Lack of educational facilities for further education	(	)
5.	High enrolment in classes on account of which tea-		
	chers cannot give adequate individual attention to		
	pupils.	(	)
6.	School timings is not appropriate	(	)
7•	Lack of awareness of gains of education on the part		
	of the community	(	)
o <sup>.</sup>	Any other (specify)	(	.)

C	Social	Causes

	٦.	Backwardness of the community	(	)
	2.	Community's feeling that education cannot serve		
		their needs	(	)
	3.	Early marriage and similar causes (Bertrothal)	(	)
	4.	No separate school for girls	(	)
	5.	Any other (specify)	(	)
D	. <u>Per</u>	Domestic circumstances like shouldering the family		
		responsibilities as no elder member of the family		
		is available to support the family	(	)
	2.	Poor health of pupils	(	)
	3.	Poor academic achievement of the pupil	(	)
	4.	Age heterogeneity of pupils in the class	(	.)
	5.	Any other (specify)	(	)

#### Phase II

### STudy on Stagnation and Drop out

Interview schedule for pupils who dropped out and their father/guardian.

### Instructions for filling the Schedule

- 1. Please to not separate the pupil's interview schedule from that of father/guardian since the former contains the identification data.
- 2. Please conduct the interview of the pupil independently of the father/guardian so that there is scope for frank reply from their source.
- 3. Information upto item 12, which is the identification data of the pupil who dropped out may be collected from school records.
- 4. Please read out the items to the respondent and explain, if necessary. For items where the response is either yes or no, please strike off the response that is not applicable.
- 5. For other items please record the reply as provided by the respondent.

Т.		Interview so	hedde for	the drop-or	ut pupils
	Identificati	<u>on Data</u>			
1.	Name of the	Pupil		• • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • •
2.	SEx	Boys (	)	Girls	( )
3.	Residential	Address		•••••	

4•	Father/Guardian's Name	• • • • • •
5•	Religion Caste	
6.	Do you belong to Scheduled Tribe? Ye	s/No
7.	Do you belong to Scheduled Caste? Ye	s/No
8.	Date of birth	
9.	Year of joining the school	• • • • • •
10.	Class in which admitted at that time	
11.	Class from which dropped out	
II. <u>9</u>	General Information	
13.	How many members are there in the family ?	• • • • • •
14.	What is the occupation of father/guardian?	
15.	Average monthly income of the family in (Rs.)	
16.	Qualification of the father/Guardian	• • • • • •
17.	How far is the school from your residence?	Km
18.	Did you drop-out after passing in the annaul examination in the class ?	Yes/No
19.	Did you drop out after failing in the annual examination in the class?	Yes/No
III.	Why did you drop out of the school ?	
IV.	What are you doing at present /(occupation)	
V -	Are you at present studying yourself or getting	help for
VI.	studying from any other agency/source? if yes, name the agency or source If provided an opportunity would you like to co	Yes/No ntinue your
	education ?	Yes/No

	(i)	Part-time	(	)	
	(ii)	Full-time	(	)	
	(Plea	se tick the prefer	rence o	response	:)
	<u>Father/G</u>	uardian interview	schedu	<u>l e</u>	
ı.	Why did your c	hild drop out fro	m the s	chool?	
II.	What is your c	hild doing at pre	sent? (	occupation	1)
III.	If given anoth	er opportunity fo	r educa	ting your	
	child, would y	ou like to educat	e your	ward?	Yes/No
	If yes, whethe	r			
		Part-time	( )	ı	
		Full-time	( )		_

If yes, whether